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*The Improvement which the Man of Europe has received in
AMERICA.*

IT has been an opinion often adopted by the historians and philosophers of Europe, that all the animals in America are inferior in every thing which constitutes their proper perfection, to those of the same species in Europe. M. de Buffon has avowed this sentiment in its fullest extent: Copying from him, most of the European writers have embraced and repeated the same hypothesis. To add something new to the conjecture, the Abbe Raynal has wished to find some marks of degradation in the Europeans themselves, when removed into America; that he might from that circumstance deduce a conclusion, that there was something naturally deficient and degrading in the American climate with regard to the productions and powers of animal life.

Among other passages, the following are remarkable for the singularity of the sentiment and expression:—"While
" tyranny and persecution were destroying population in
" Europe, British America was beginning to be peopled
" with three sorts of inhabitants. The first class consists
" of freemen: It is the most numerous, but hitherto it has
" visibly degenerated. The Creoles, in general, though
" habituated to the climate from their cradle, are not so
" robust and fit for labour, nor so powerful in war, as the
" Europeans; whether it be that they have not the im-
" provements of education, or that they are softened by
" nature. In that foreign clime the mind is enervated as
" well as the body: Endued with a quickness and early
" penetration, it easily apprehends, but wants steadiness,
" and is not used to continued thought. It must be a mat-
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“ter of astonishment to find, that America has not yet
 “produced a good poet, an able mathematician, or a man
 “of genius in any single art or science. They possess, in
 “general, a readiness for acquiring the knowledge of every
 “art or science, but not one of them shews a decisive ta-
 “lent for one in particular. Is it possible that, although
 “the Creoles educated with us have every one of them
 “good sense, or at least the most part of them, yet not
 “one should have arisen to any great degree of perfection
 “in the slightest pursuit: And that, among such as have
 “staid in their own country, no one has distinguished him-
 “self by a confirmed superiority in those talents which
 “lead to fame? Has nature then punished them for hav-
 “ing crossed the ocean? Are they a people degenerated by
 “transplanting, by growth, and by mixture *?”

Such is the account which the Abbe Raynal gives of the degradation which has come upon the descendants of Europe in America. It may afford amusement to an inquisitive mind to examine the observations, and investigate what has been the fact with regard to the descendants of those Europeans who settled in the United States of America; and we know not how to conduct the inquiry upon fairer principles, than to endeavour to ascertain what has been the effect with regard to their government,—religion,—population,—and those arts which tend the most to render human life more easy and happy.

1. With regard to civil government.—When the men of Europe came into the different parts of America, they brought with them no other ideas or sentiments as to the nature or form of civil government, than those of the European monarchies. Hereditary monarchy was the established form of government in all the kingdoms, from which the first settlers in America came. The authority of the monarch was then every where esteemed as sacred and divine, something derived immediately from the god of kings, not at all dependant upon or derived from the people, but reserved, appropriated, and imparted by the Creator of all, to certain European families called noble and royal. Firmly believing

* Raynal's *History of the East and West Indies*, vol. vi. p. 80, 81. edit. 1782.

believing in, and deeply impressed with these ideas, the Spaniards, the French, and the English, came into what, in the singular language of Europe, was called the new world, and they every where attempted to establish the same system and form of government.—And behold the first mark of their degradation in the American climate! Believing in monarchy, with all its high distinctions and claims, of uncorrupted, noble and royal blood, they immediately found the distinctions and privileges annexed to it were unnatural, useless, and foolish. Their business was to clear up the lands, to plant the country, and to provide food and raiment. To men engaged in such necessary and useful employments, nature and situation suggested the vanity and folly of the European distinctions and titles; and they saw at once, that man was not any better for being called a duke, an earl, or a marquis. Civil government they immediately found was a matter of the highest consequence and necessity; and instead of enquiring nicely into the heavenly property said to be appropriated and communicated to kings, they passed over these sublime mysteries, took the step that nature taught, and entered into combinations among themselves both to form and support civil government. Their constant employment of clearing up an uncultivated country, gave them just and comprehensive views of the nature and origin of property: Their mutual wants, interests, and safety, taught them the nature, design, and duty of civil government; and every thing in their situation and employment tended to give them just ideas of the rights and duties of man.

Thus, while in theory they believed in the sacred right of kings and monarchy, every thing in their business and in the state of the country taught them a contrary doctrine; and plainly indicated, that it was the will of their Creator that they should govern themselves in such a manner as was best suited to their condition and state of society. During a century and an half the kings of England still kept up their claims, and their authority. This interference of royal authority was every where found to produce mischief, and to be unfriendly to the interest and prosperity of the colonies. At length the matter became so oppressive and odious

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ous that it could be endured no longer. The people of America and the king of England appealed to arms, which should have the sovereign authority. Heaven declared in favour of the just and righteous cause of the people. *The American system of government*, till then unknown to the world, took place. The universal and uncommon prosperity of the whole continent engaged the attention of all Europe. The wisest and most powerful of all her nations caught the American flame, endeavoured to avail herself of the American principles, destroyed despotism, established the republican form of government, and is now, in the genuine spirit of liberty, bearing down the combined force of all the European despots; and the prospect is, that the American principles of government will make their way through every part of Europe.

It certainly then cannot be in matters of government that the men of Europe have degenerated in America. The whole effect has been the other way: They have discovered the true principles of a free government, and firmly established them in their own country. The first nation in Europe has learned and adopted them; and in vain do emperors, kings, nobles, and priests, endeavour to obscure their truth, or prevent their progress.

2. Another article in respect to which the degradation of man often appears with a melancholy aspect, is in matters of religion.—At the time when the first emigrations were made to America, the religion that was established in almost every part of Europe, was truly and properly *the religion of monarchy*. In conformity to the distinctions and different orders of men in the state, the clergy were also arranged under different names, dignities, and orders: from the dirt, by various steps and orders, the hierarchy rose to the skies. Beginning in the privilege of begging, the order of clergy rose one over another, till the whole terminated in a spiritual monarch called an archbishop, patriarch, or pontiff. In the highest spiritual office, by whatever name it was called, were united the privileges of great wealth, the powers of superstition, temporal honours, civil dignities, and a situation next to the throne; effectually securing the conscience of the sovereign, the obedience of the

the clergy, and the faith of the people. Ceremonies, creeds, and confessions, founded in folly, ignorance, and knavery, formed the largest part of what was called the divine service. The principles and practice of morality were forgot, and the fear of God and love of our neighbour were but little taught or regarded. To believe in the church was the grand requisite; and the vices of such men, however enormous, gave but little offence; conformity made atonement for all vices; and he who was an obedient son of the church, and liberal in money to his spiritual mother, was sure of being blessed by deacons, priests, and bishops.

This system of corruption, called at that time religion, had become so apparent and abusive, that the degree of corruption had served to engage the attention of many serious persons; and the consequence of thinking at all upon the subject, was a discovery that there were many errors and abuses in the national religion. No sooner had the emigrants arrived in New-England, than they laid aside the whole system of ecclesiastical power; and although they were far from comprehending the principles of religious liberty, and had too much of the intolerant and persecuting spirit which they brought from their mother country, they contracted the leading principle of religious freedom which produced all the rest, 'that the people themselves should choose their own clergy, and that the clergy should be without civil powers or honours.' Amidst thousands of errors and mistakes, this fundamental truth gained strength, gradually explained itself, and continued to operate till it produced that perfect system of equality and freedom which now takes place in America: A system in exact conformity to the genius and spirit of the pure and benevolent religion of JESUS CHRIST; greatly favourable to society; and honourable, in the highest degree, to the country that discovered and produced it.

Is it then in matters of religion that the men of America have degenerated from their ancestors? Are the established and dignified clergy of monarchies, the only meek and humble successors of the fishermen of Galilee? Is it in the divine right of tithes and tenths, that apostolic Christianity consists? Or have no order of clergy any valid commissions,

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but those who receive thousands and ten thousands of the money earned by the labours and sufferings of the people? Are these the men, who, above all others, are the followers of him who had not where to lay his head? It is impossible not to discern in the religious establishments of Europe, the powers, the maxims, the policy, and the abuses of monarchy and established corruption. And it is apparent, that in America the people have wholly rejected this system of tyranny and iniquity, and have every where established the rights of conscience, and that unlimited equality and freedom to which all men are justly entitled, and which nature and Christianity enjoin and require. Instead then of being degraded by residing in America, the men of Europe have here become much more enlightened and improved in their religious principles than their brethren whom they left behind: And it was in the country where every thing partook of the spirit of freedom, that they first discovered the true principles of religious freedom and ecclesiastical policy.

3. If the degradation of the European cannot be found in their civil or religious attainments, it will be most natural to look for it in their *physical* qualities and properties.— And what has been the case here? Are the men of America degenerated in their size, strength, vigour, and courage? So the British ministers talked and talked; and nothing could make them believe to the contrary, till two of their armies were taken, their generals and troops every where defeated, and no security remained for any of them but in the neighbourhood of their shipping. It then became necessary to save their own honour, by confessing that the men who had captured their generals and armies, had probably as much courage and strength as the troops they had taken captive.—If further proof is necessary here, the matter is referred to the British nation to decide: No people have said so much of the American weakness and cowardice, as you accustomed yourselves to before the late American war. Will you now be so good as to tell us at what time, and by what nation, your king and parliament were ever so effectually humbled as by the captures of Burgoyne and Cornwallis? Could those Americans, by whom your best generals and troops were thus dishonoured, be men whose bodies
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and minds were enervated in a foreign climate? Is it then in respect to the increase and preservation of the human species, that the Americans are become inferior to the Europeans? In this respect one of the best informed writers in Europe has told us, that "in Great-Britain and most other European countries, they are not supposed to double in less than five hundred years*." In America, the period of doubling, from the most authentic observations, in every part of the United States, is between twenty and twenty-five years†. Strange degradation, that has proved above twenty times more favourable to population, than the state of society in Europe!

4. Is it then in those arts which tend to render human life more easy and happy, that the Americans have degenerated? So far from this, that they have made great improvements in all those arts, which are of the greatest necessity and convenience to man.—Among the most useful arts, agriculture, by the consent of all men, is to be ranked first, as most of all necessary and useful. And is there in the annals of mankind, any instance in which so much has been done, and such improvements made in the course of one century and an half? From north to south, through a tract of country fifteen hundred miles in length, and two hundred in width; the wilderness, never touched before by the hand of cultivation, has been turned into flourishing cities, or fruitful villages and fields, settled by three millions of inhabitants, and affording food for as many more Europeans. In no country, and at no period of time, has agriculture ever before performed such exploits and wonders in so short a period of time. In commerce, no sooner was America delivered from the shackles of the British navigation-acts, than she carried her commerce into the most distant parts of the globe: And those India voyages, which the British merchants had endeavoured to improve for more than two centuries, were immediately performed in less than half the time, and at less than half the expence, to which the Europeans had been accustomed. In the mechanic arts, confessing our superiority, the British workmen have sent

* *Smith's Wealth of Nations*, vol. i. p. 94.

† *History of Vermont*, p. 365.—367.

for the American mechanics, to teach them the art of giving strength and durability to their bridges: And in no kind of mechanical employment is it the case, that the European workmen will perform one half of the business, which is done by the American labourers in the same time.

But in those arts and sciences which are merely speculative, theoretic, or ornamental, the case is not the same: Here the subjects of ancient and wealthy monarchies are before the citizens of a new country. While the latter are employed in rendering their country rich, happy, and flourishing, the former, forbid to meddle with the affairs of government or religion, are allowed to cultivate the languages, poetry, and mathematics: And these the Abbe Raynal seems to consider as the only marks of genius, strength of mind, or excellency of understanding. Trained up in a country where every thing bore the marks and effects of despotism, he had no ideas of any improvements among the people, or that the body of the citizens ever were to arise to any thing great or good. And hence he was looking for the existence and evidence of genius in a few remarkable poets, philosophers, and mathematicians, in the imitators of Homer, Theocritus, Anacreon, Archimedes, or Newton.

Was there ever any idea of genius and eminence less just, or more perfectly monarchical than this? It is allowed speculative science and the fine arts deserve the attention and cultivation of every country: But surely they are not the primary or most important pursuits; nor do they bear any proportion in point of utility to those arts, in which the necessities and conveniencies of all men are concerned. When Homer wrote his *Odyssey*, and when Milton favoured the world with his *Paradise Lost*, these poets did that which displayed the greatest force and extent of the imagination, and deserved the approbation of all men. When Newton discovered the law of attraction, and investigated the principles of fluxions, he discovered a strength of mind honourable to human nature, and which could not fail to engage the attention of all the mathematicians in Europe. But neither in the one nor in the other of these discoveries, were the body of mankind much concerned, nor have they received much advantage from either of them. The duties
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and the employments of men were the same before and after the discovery of the new planet ; and the body of mankind had precisely the same air to breathe in, before Priestly discovered that it might be produced in various methods, and had different effects. It is not therefore by the discoveries of a few mathematicians, or by the imaginations of a few poets, that a country is made to thrive, that human happiness is most of all promoted, or that the body of mankind are to be most improved. It is no mark, therefore, of degradation in the people of America, that the Abbe Raynal does not find them generally endeavouring to acquire fame, by devoting themselves to poetry and the mathematics. It is the mark and the effect of superior information in human affairs, that their philosophers have raised their views to higher objects, and are most of all devoted to the pursuits and improvements which have the welfare, the improvement, and the prosperity of their country for their more immediate object: And whenever these are carried to their proper perfection, all that is really useful and properly ornamental, will succeed of course. We reject, therefore, the Abbe's idea of men of genius ; and are sorry that he did not know, that the most sublime work of the human mind, is to improve the civil and moral state of the people, and to render a whole nation more improved, happy, and prosperous. With men of this kind of genius America every where abounds : And such kind of philosophers are infinitely more useful to us, than a few eminent poets and mathematicians are, or ever can be.

It is not therefore degradation, but a high state of improvement, that the men of Europe have acquired in America : And this improvement does not consist in attainments merely speculative or ornamental ; but in those civil, moral, and æconomical virtues that render a country happy, prosperous, and highly flourishing. The greatest and the wisest nation in Europe are following our example. And the best wish we can form for the improvement of the nation from whom we descended, is, that they may do the same.

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The singular Resolution and Fortitude of ANNA ASKEW.

IT was the saying of a heathen philosopher, that there cannot be imagined upon earth a spectacle more worthy the regard of the Creator intent on his works, than a brave man superior to his sufferings. Nothing indeed can be more noble or honourable, than to have courage enough to execute the commands of reason and conscience; to maintain the dignity of our nature, and the station assigned us; and to be proof against poverty, pain, and death itself, so far as not to do any thing that is scandalous or sinful to avoid them. To be thus, is to be great above title and fortune. This argues the soul of an heavenly extraction, and is worthy the offspring of the Deity.

Of this virtue the following example, related in English history, is here selected, as superior, perhaps, all circumstances considered, to any other upon record.

Sir William Askew of Kelfay, in Lincolnshire, had several daughters. His second, named Anne, had received a genteel education; which, with an agreeable figure and good understanding, rendered her a very proper person to be at the head of a family. Her father, regardless of his daughter's inclination and happiness, obliged her to marry a gentleman who had nothing to recommend him but his fortune, and who was a most bigoted Papist. No sooner was he convinced of his wife's regard for the doctrines of the reformation from Popery, than, by the instigation of the priests, he violently drove her from his house, though she had borne him two children, and her conduct was unexceptionable. Abandoned by her husband, she came up to London, in order to procure a divorce, and to make herself known to that part of the court who either professed or were favourers of Protestantism: but as Henry VIII. with consent of parliament, had just enacted the law of the six articles, commonly called the bloody statute, she was cruelly betrayed by her own husband; and, upon his information, taken into custody, and examined concerning her faith. The act above mentioned denounced death against all those who should deny the doctrine of transubstantiation; or, that
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the bread and wine made use of in the sacrament was not converted after consecration into the real body and blood of Christ; or, maintain the necessity of receiving the sacrament in both kinds; or affirm, that it was lawful for priests to marry; that the vows of celibacy might be broken; that private masses were of no avail; and that auricular confession to a priest was not necessary to salvation. Upon these articles she was examined by the inquisitor, a priest, the lord-mayor of London, and the bishop's chancellor; and to all their queries gave proper and pertinent answers; but not being such as they approved, she was sent back to prison, where she remained eleven days to ruminate alone on her alarming situation, and was denied the small consolation of a friendly visit. The king's council being at Greenwich, she was once more examined by chancellor Wriothesley, Gardiner bishop of Winchester, Dr. Cox, and Dr. Robinson; but not being able to convince her of her supposed errors, she was sent to the Tower. Mr. Strype, from an authentic paper, gives us the following short account of her examination, which may not, perhaps, be unentertaining or useless to the reader: "Sir Martin Bowes (lord mayor) sitting with the council, as most meet for his wisdom, and seeing her stand upon life and death, I pray you, quoth he, my lords, give me leave to talk to this woman? Leave was granted. Lord Mayor. Thou foolish woman, sayest thou that the priest cannot make the holy body of Christ? A. Askew. I say so, my lord: for I have read that God made man; but that man made God I never read; nor I suppose ever shall read it. Lord Mayor. No! Thou foolish woman, after the words of consecration, is it not the Lord's body? A. Askew. No: it is but consecrated bread, or sacramental bread. Lord Mayor. What if a mouse eat it after consecration; what shall become of this mouse? what sayest thou, thou foolish woman? A. Askew. What shall become of her, say you, my lord? Lord Mayor. I say, that the mouse is damned. A. Askew. Alack, poor mouse!" Perceiving that some could not keep in their laughing, the council proceeded to the butchery and slaughter that they intended before they came there.—It was strongly suspected that Mrs. Askew was favoured by some ladies of high rank; and that she

she carried on a religious correspondence with the queen. So that the chancellor Wriothesley, hoping that he might discover something that would afford matter of impeachment against that Princess, the Earl of Hertford, or his Countess, who all favoured reformation, ordered her to be put to the rack: but her fortitude in suffering, and her resolution not to betray her friends, was proof against that diabolical invention. Not a groan, not a word, could be extorted from her. The chancellor, provoked with what he called her obstinacy, augmented her tortures with his own hands, and with unheard of violence: but her courage and constancy were invincible; and these barbarians gained nothing by their cruelties but everlasting disgrace and infamy. As soon as she was taken from the rack, she fainted away; but being recovered, she was condemned to the flames. Her bones were dislocated in such a manner, that they were forced to carry her in a chair to the place of execution. While she was at the stake, letters were brought her from the lord chancellor, offering her the king's pardon if she would recant. But she refused to look at them; telling the messenger, that "she came not thither to deny her Lord and Master." The same letters were also tendered to three other persons condemned to the same fate; and who, animated by her example, refused to accept them. Whereupon the lord-mayor commanded the fire to be kindled; and with savage ignorance cried out, *Fiat justitia*, "Let justice take its course." The faggots being lighted, she commended her soul, with the utmost composure, into the hands of her Maker; and, like the great founder of the religion she professed, expired, 'praying for her murderers,' July 16, 1546, about the 25th year of her age.



Horrid Effects of Ignorance, Fear, and Superstition.

[After his defeat at the battle of Belgrade in 1786, the GRAND SEIGNIOR issued out the following Decree, in order to appease the wrath, and procure the favour of heaven.]

"**A** SHMED SELIM, Sultan, Emperor of the East and of the West, Lord of Lords, true imitator of the prophet

phet Mahomet, &c. The grand sultan being apprehensive, that the hand of the great God is stretched out against his government, his subjects, and his empire, since he permits them to be oppressed and tormented by their enemies the Christians, who have vanquished them several times, both by sea and land, and taken from them a large extent of country; and all this, as it appears to him, because the mussulmen have corrupted themselves, and become too confident of their power: Wherefore, to appease the wrath of God, and of his prophet Mahomet, he expressly orders, That on Friday after new moon, in the fifth, sixth, and seventh months, all and singular his subjects shall keep a rigorous fast all that day, and abstain from meat and drink from the rising of the sun till that of the stars. On that day the Mufti, and other ecclesiastical servants, clothed with penitential garments of hair-cloth, with downcast eyes, beards uncombed, and all in tears, shall repair first to the public places, and afterwards to the mosques, crying with all their strength, 'Ya mo, fateth ilabwab,' *i. e.* Open the gates of thy favour. In the island of Mecca the prophet's coffin shall be laid open, and exposed to public view upon silver tressels, perfumed with incense, and filled with the bones of servants and spahis killed in the battle; that the prophet, moved by so great and so sensible a loss, may be induced to appease the wrath of the great God. This to be performed during these three Fridays, the coffin carried through the streets and in the fields; and all the pilgrims and inhabitants of the mosques, with the chiefs of the trades, shall make the round seven times, singing, with a doleful voice, the canticle of lamentation on account of this terrible destruction. No instrument of music shall be heard, but only cries of sorrow and an universal mourning: and, on the last day of fasting, a solemn and general procession shall be made, ten miles round, in the following order:

" 1. The procession shall begin with a coffin filled with dead men's bones, broken scymitars, flatted cuirasses, broken bows, and blunt arrows. All these things shall be carried by six hundred Turks clothed in penitential habits, bare-footed and bare-headed, without turbans.

" 2. Shall follow three hundred mussulmen, with habits
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dyed in blood and strewed with ashes, striking their breasts, with lamentable outcries and doleful howlings.

" 3. Six thousand men, naked from their shoulders to their girdles, shall lash their breasts and shoulders with thorns till the blood droppeth on the ground, without their wiping it off.

" 4. The coffin of the prophet, supported by thirty spahis without turbans, surrounded by four hundred bashaws, with drawn scymitars, to destroy all who shall look on the coffin without respect, and whose bodies shall be cast to the dogs.

" 5. At every quarter of a mile an ass and a Jew shall be killed, and left lying on the ground in their blood.

" 6. Thirty land bashaws, shall be without purple, and with pityful turbans of a black stuff dipped in the blood of the ass and Jew, having one hand tied behind to their shoulder, without scymitars, but with tails of black horses dragging on the ground to make the dust rise.

" 7. Three thousand janizaries, without arms, having sticks in their hands trailing on the ground, shall cry, 'Al-la hasbi fagavuri!' i. e. God is my protector! let him pardon me!

" 8. A chest filled with silver to be thrown to the people, but not to be gathered till the procession be over, under pain of being impaled alive.

" 9. In fine, this procession shall be closed by an innumerable multitude of people, in the midst of whom there shall be an hundred of Turkish penitents, who with knives shall cut off the flesh off their arms, breasts, and faces, the better to appease the wrath of the great God and his prophet Mahomet; and, at every quarter of a mile, they shall lift up their right hand, and cry, with all their strength, 'Alla fifai sededni Ahday.' i. e. I invoke God with my mouth, that he may tortify me against my enemies.



The sublime geometry of the BEES.

THE manufactures of animals differ from those of men in many striking particulars.

No animal of the species can claim the invention. No animal

animal ever introduced any new improvement, or any variation from the former practice. Every one of the species has equal skill from the beginning, without teaching, without experience or habit. Every one has its art by a kind of inspiration. I do not mean that it is inspired with the principles or rules of the art, but with the ability and inclination of working in it to perfection, without any knowledge of its principles, rules, or end.

The more sagacious animals may be taught to do many things which they do not by instinct. What they are taught to do, they do with more or less skill, according to their sagacity and their training. But, in their own arts, they need no teaching or training, nor is the art ever improved or lost. Bees gather their honey and their wax, they fabricate their combs and rear their young at this day, neither better nor worse than they did when Virgil so sweetly sung their works.

The work of every animal is indeed like the works of nature, perfect in its kind, and can bear the most critical examination of the mechanic or the mathematician. One example from the animal last mentioned may serve to illustrate this.

Bees, it is well known, construct their combs with small cells on both sides, fit both for holding their store of honey and for rearing their young. There are only three possible figures of the cells, which can make them all equal and similar, without any useless interstices. These are the equilateral, triangle, the square, and the regular hexagon.

It is well known to mathematicians, that there is not a fourth way possible, in which a plane may be cut into little spaces that shall be equal, similar, and regular, without leaving any interstices. Of the three, the hexagon is the most proper, both for conveniency and strength. Bees, as if they knew this, make their cells regular hexagons.

As the combs have cells on both sides, the cells may either be exactly opposite, having partition against partition, or the bottom of a cell may rest upon the partitions between the cells on the other side, which will serve as a buttress to strengthen it. The last way is best for strength; accordingly, the bottom of each cell rests against the point where
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three partitions meet on the other side, which gives it all the strength possible.

The bottom of a cell may either be one plane perpendicular to the side-partitions, or it may be composed of several planes, meeting in a solid angle in the middle point. It is only in one of these two ways that all the cells can be similar without losing room. And, for the same intention, the planes of which the bottom is composed, if there be more than one, must be three in number, and neither more nor fewer.

It has been demonstrated, that, by making the bottoms of the cells to consist of three planes meeting in a point, there is a saving of material and labour no way inconsiderable. The bees, as if acquainted with these principles of solid geometry, follow them most accurately; the bottom of each cell being composed of three planes, which make obtuse angles with the side-partitions, and with one another, and meet in a point in the middle of the bottom; the three angles of this bottom being supported by three partitions on the other side of the comb, and the point of it by the common intersection of those three partitions.

One instance more of the mathematical skill displayed in the structure of a honey-comb deserves to be mentioned.

It is a curious mathematical problem, at what precise angle the three planes which compose the bottom of a cell ought to meet, in order to make the greatest possible saving, or the least expence, of material and labour.

This is one of those problems belonging to the higher parts of mathematics, which are called problems of *maxima* and *minima*. It has been resolved by some mathematicians, particularly by the ingenious Mr. Maclaurin, by a fluxionary calculation, which is to be found in the Transactions of the Royal Society of London. He has determined precisely the angle required; and he found, by the most exact mensuration the subject could admit, that it is the very angle in which the three planes in the bottom of the cell of a honey-comb do actually meet.

Shall we ask here, who taught the bee the properties of solids, and to resolve problems of *maxima* and *minima*? If a honey-comb were a work of human art, every man of common

mon sense would conclude, without hesitation, that he who invented the construction, must have understood the principles on which it is constructed.

We need not say that bees know none of these things. They work most geometrically, without any knowledge of geometry; somewhat like a child, who, by turning the handle of an organ, makes good music, without any knowledge of music.

The art is not in the child, but in him who made the organ. In like manner, when a bee makes its combs so geometrically, the geometry is not in the bee, but in that great Geometrician who made the bee, and made all things in number, weight, and measure.



The pitiable case of an old Bachelor.

I AM now about thirty-eight years of age—and one of the oddest and most unhappy fellows extant. I've been twisted and twirled about by the girls, till I'm as thin as a snake. I set out early in life to be a great gallant, and thought the girls treated me with some attention—which I was pleased to ascribe to my gallantry, but since I am told it was my merit—this I assure you mortified me much. The girls respect me now—yet not for my gallantry or merit—but (the dogs take my grey hairs!) for my advanced age. But to the point. I had been addressing a young lady steadily for six years—the first year I did nothing but look at and ogle her—the second I chatted with her a little—the third I squeezed her hand and sighed—the fourth I made proposals of marriage to her—the fifth she consented—and the sixth we were to be married, but could not agree on the time or place. I was desirous to marry on the second day of February, and at her own father's house. She declared against marrying till the last day of August—I begged, prayed, sighed, raved, ranted, swore—but all to no purpose—she stuck like a tick to her resolve—till she drove me to despair—So one morning I took a sword, and went to see her; when I renewed my suit with all the persuasion I was master of: but the jade still continued immutable—

I then discovered my sword, and fixed the point to my breast, with a determination to put an end to my wretched life, unless she would recede from her cruel resolution. I positively declared to her I would do it, and do it instantly. She seemed a little surprised, when she saw how determined I looked. I then pricked my breast to make it bleed. The blood ran a little, when, Mr. Printer, instead of deviating a whit from her purpose—instead of begging me to spare a life she held most dear—instead of fainting or shrieking, she gently laid hold of my arm, and requested me to walk to the fire-place before I stabbed myself, for blood was the worst thing in the world to stain a floor, and her's was newly washed: In an instant I felt as if a thousand musketoes had laid violent hands on my flesh—my sword fell out of my hand, and I ran home, determined to remain till the day of my death an

OLD BACHELOR.



MEDICAL PAPERS.

No. I.—*The rise of Physic, a caveat against Quackery.*

[The following Dissertation was written and read before the First Medical Society in Vermont, on the first Wednesday of July, A. D. 1791, by TIMOTHY TODD, now President of the First Medical Society in Vermont.]

THE Wise Author of our nature, in the formation of our bodies, has been pleased to dispose the several parts in such a manner, and on such nice dependencies, that we are constantly exposed to casualties, sickness, and infirmities.

The animal œconomy being thus subject to a variety of diseases; those diseases proceeding from many causes; those causes so remote from conception, that it is impossible but sickness should obtain. The aliment we receive for our sustenance, and the air we breathe, are many times filled with contagion. The changing seasons, day and night, rain and sunshine, and every apparent blessing we enjoy, many times affect our health, and proves to be ministers of distress. This having been the case in every age of the world,

world, to mitigate those evils experiments were early tried, or antidotes were accidentally discovered. Medicine, like many other useful arts and sciences, has been progressively improved from the dark ages of the world until this time. In Egypt, where arts and refinements first began to flourish, we find physic was esteemed a very important science. The practice of the Egyptians, by dissecting and embalming their dead, gave them some insight into the anatomy of the human body. However, their knowledge was far from being general. Their method of practice was written down in their sacred books. The hieroglyphics in which they were written, were understood only by their priests. Whoever deviated in practice from the rules therein contained, answered every failure with his life. This method, on the one hand, suppressed quackery, and on the other, prevented useful discoveries. According to historians, each practitioner prescribed for a part of the body; one, for instance, for an eye, another for a hand or foot, &c. As early as the Trojan war, we find *Esculapius* practising physic with great success in the Grecian army; and not long after, his two sons with the like success. After them, it seems, this practice was lost in *Greece*. In *Assyria* and in *Babylon* the sick were exposed in the gates of their cities, that travellers and strangers might prescribe for them; and if they effected a cure, an account of the disease and remedies prescribed were written down, and deposited with the statue of *Esculapius*, who, at his death, had been deified, according to the custom of the Pagans, and a temple erected for his worship.

Thus, the knowledge of medicine was gradually increased, but still depended entirely on plants; and the most enlightened nations had advanced no farther in their discoveries until about 400 years before Christ, when in Greece arose *Hippocrates*, an ornament to his country, and an enlightener of mankind, who, with an imagination bold and daring, with a mind formed for contemplation and useful discoveries, by philosophical researches, and a fund of knowledge, which he acquired by examining the archives of the statue of *Esculapius*, by a careful attention to nature, and the diagnostic symptoms of the sick, he establish-

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ed physic on so firm a basis, that his system stands approved at this day.

This was the man, the philosopher, and the physician, who brought the jarring elements of medicine into order and regularity, and established his principles on reason. As learning was at that time in a flourishing state in Greece, and this language was taught in all those nations whom the Greeks had conquered, the *Hippocratic* practice extended far. About 20 years after Christ, and upwards of 400 after *Hippocrates*, *Celsus* flourished in Rome, who was an ornament to human nature, whether he be considered as a physician or philosopher. He improved on the established principles of Hippocrates, and diffused light and knowledge by his writings which are now held in esteem. About 170 years after *Celsus*, the faculty were amused, instructed, and bewildered by *Galen*, a Greek. He was a man of great talents and deep philosophy. By him we may learn how liable a physician is to err, by adhering strictly to theory, in opposition to known facts. Had Galen have taken nature and observation for his mistress and guide, had he have reasoned from simple facts, in short, had he tried to investigate things only within his reach, he might deservedly have been stiled the 'greatest physician who ever wrote.' But unhappily he adopted a metaphysical method of reasoning and establishing hypothesis, which discovered much labour and ingenuity, but was hurtful to the profession. By trying to unite the practice of *Hippocrates* to his metaphysical notions—by his abstruse and false reasoning, he confounded the writings of the worthies who preceded him, and established an absurd practice, which was introduced into Spain, Gaul, Germany, &c. and continued many ages; and was doubtless a greater curse to mankind, than all the incidental sickness left to nature alone would have been.

Some ages after, experiments were tried on metallic substances by chemistry; and all simples of the vegetable kingdom were exploded, and chemical preparations were substituted in their stead—so prone are mankind to run into extremes. From this time the practice of the several nations
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of Europe varied: Some used plants, roots, &c. or Galenical medicines; some again made use of minerals or chemical preparations only, while others occasionally used both. Considerable improvements were, however, made in many places, and the art of surgery considerably advanced; until the year of our Lord 1650, when the discovery of the circulation of the blood was announced and accounted for, by *Dr. Harvey*, an Englishman. By him the principles of medicine were again reduced to reason, and the system of *Hippocrates* again established.

The next age produced the celebrated *Sydenham*, who reformed the practice, and added comfort and health to the diseased—'by indulging the sick with a little of whatever nature appeared to crave; by assisting her to expel the cause, by such an evacuation as she herself pointed out; by exchanging the filthy linen of the diseased, which was infectious and uncomfortable, and substituting cleanliness in its stead; by ventilating the chamber of the sick, and by following the simple dictates of nature.' The list of modern physicians who have been eminently useful, and who have blessed the world with their sentiments, cannot be mentioned here. I however shall not forbear to mention the great *Boerhave*, who by his accurate investigations has produced a complete system, which continues to astonish, instruct, and delight mankind. A crowd of English worthies might here be mentioned; among others, *Mead*, *Huxham*, *Whitt*, *Priestly*, &c.; and I ought not to neglect *Cullen*, who has favoured the world with an ingenious publication, and brought the practice of physic to be simple indeed. How great benefit will accrue to the faculty from his works it is difficult to say, perhaps thirty years hence it may be determined. I fear, however, that students in medicine will neglect the learned opinions of elegant writers, and pass by them as obsolete: That they will be apt to explode writings which they do not understand, nor ever attended to read, and imbibe, with avidity, *Cullen's* concise system, which, with diffidence I speak, appears to me insufficient to form the complete physician, although I acknowledge its merit. What shall we say to the production of *Brown*—
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in good hands his *Elements* will undoubtedly be very useful, but like poison in the hands of ignorance.

America has, for half a century past, produced men of eminence and excellence in the profession of medicine—she can now boast of her *Rush, Ramsey, Bard, Bayley, Orsborn, Holyoke, Lloyd, Warren, Jackson, &c.*

(To be continued.)

No. II. *A case of the HYDROPHOBIA, communicated by Dr. T. Todd.*

ON the 26th day of December 1789, I was called to visit a child of Mr. Samuel Fulsom of Arlington, aged about six or seven years, who had been bitten by a mad cat six days before. My first inquiry was, whether the cat was really mad; but was soon convinced, from the best authority, that that was the case, as a dog which she had bitten was then mad and confined; but, breaking from his confinement, bit many cattle before the inhabitants could destroy him, most of which cattle were saved by cutting off the ear in which they were wounded the same day. I found the child's great-toe lacerated by the teeth of the cat, but not very deep. The wound looked dry, and of a purple or bluish colour. I immediately scarified and dressed with equal parts of sal nitre and common salt, and directed a puke of *turbeth min.* and in the evening small doses of *calomel*, with *tinct. theb.* to prevent its purging off. On the 27th dressed as above, gave *emetic* of the *turbeth* in the morning, in the afternoon four small doses of *calomel* and *anodyne*. On the 28th, dressing as before, *emetic* as above, two doses of *calomel*; and this evening, as she was costive, a *cathartic*. On the 29th, the *emetic* repeated, small doses of *calomel*. On the 30th, the same plan pursued. 31st, I discovered a red streak from the wound running up the limb to her body, and she had become watchful and filled with dreadful anxiety. I administered the *turbeth* puke as before, and dressed with *unguent cerul. merc.* as well as applied it to the inflamed parts, and continued the *calomel*.

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This night she appeared in horror, starting, trembling, and screeching, by turns. Jan. 1st, The spectacle was truly shocking: The muscles of her face were distorted; her eyes discovered wildness and amazement; her countenance and voice were more canine than human; and her father informed me that she once or twice barked like a dog. At the appearance of any liquid, she was thrown into the most terrifying agonies, and could not bear the sight, although parching with thirst at the same time. Her parents almost sunk under the heart-rending sight. I continued my course of *calomel*, and gave *valerian*, the *fatid tincture*, &c. and continued the application of *unguent cerul*. In the evening discovered signs of a *ptilsm* coming on. On the 2d, the *ptilsm* was complete, and the wound, which had ever been dry, began to discharge. The symptoms of *hydrophobia* lessened—give *antispasmodics*, &c. 3d, The *ptilsm* continues; symptoms of *hydrophobia* subsiding; medicine as the day before. 4th, Symptoms of *hydrophobia* nearly gone; *ptilsm* continues, medicine as before. From this time until the 8th, I gave *crem. tart. flor. sulph.* and the decoction of the woods, at which time she was so far recovered as to need no farther attendance. One year from this time she had a slight indisposition, and felt the former complaints in a small degree; since that she has enjoyed good health, and is now a fine girl.

As six days had elapsed before I was called, I thought there was a necessity in urging the medicines faster than I should otherwise have done.

This case may serve to shew those who explode the use of mercurials in such cases, that they are much to be depended on, and in this case saved the child. It may learn others not to despair after a person is seized with this dreadful complaint, and neglect the use of means, as formerly has been too much the case.

I have not accurately mentioned the quantity of the medicine given, as that must always depend on the judgment of the person who administers. (Original.

The Editor returns many thanks to the ingenious author of the medical papers, for his valuable communications:—

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As he wishes to make the Magazine the Repository of Vermont productions, he requests the gentlemen of the faculty to favour him with materials for a regular course of Vermont medical observations.



COLLECTION OF ORIGINAL HISTORICAL PAPERS.

LETTERS from the Governors of New-Hampshire and New-York relative to the first grants of Land in Vermont.

No. I. *Letters from the Governor of New-Hampshire to the Governor of New-York.*

S I R,

Portsmouth, Nov. 17, 1749.

I HAVE it in command from his Majesty, to make grants of the unimproved lands within my government, to such of the inhabitants and others as shall apply for grants for the same, as will oblige themselves to settle and improve, agreeable to his Majesty's instructions.

The war hitherto has prevented me from making so great a progress as I hoped for on my first appointment; but as there is a prospect of a lasting peace with the Indians, in which your Excellency has had a great share, people are daily applying for grants of land in all quarters of this government, and particularly some for townships to be laid out in the western part thereof, which will fall in the neighbourhood of your government. I think it my duty to apprise you thereof, and to transmit to your Excellency the description of New-Hampshire, as the king has determined it in the words of my commission, which, after you have considered, I shall be glad you will be pleased to give me your sentiments in what manner it will affect the grants made by you or preceding governors, it being my intention to avoid, as much as I can, consistent with his Majesty's instructions, interfering with your government.

In consequence of his Majesty's determination of the boundaries between New-Hampshire and the Massachusetts, a surveyor and proper chairmen were appointed to run the western line from three miles north of Pantucket Falls; and the surveyor upon oath has declared, that it strikes Hudson's River, about eighty poles between where Mo-
hawk's

hawk's River comes into Hudson's River, which I presume is north of the city of Albany, for which reason it will be necessary for me to be informed, how far north of Albany the government of New-York extends by his Majesty's commission to your Excellency, and how many miles to the eastward of Hudson's River, to the northward of the Massachusetts line, that I may govern myself accordingly. And if, in the execution of the king's commands with respect to the lands, I can oblige any of your Excellency's friends, I am always at your service.—I am, with the greatest respect, Sir, your Excellency's most obedient humble servant,

B. WENTWORTH.

No. II. *Minutes of the Council of New-York.*

Council-Chamber, City of New York, April 3d, 1750.

HIS Excellency communicated to the board a letter from the Hon. Benning Wentworth, Esq. governor of New-Hampshire, dated the 17th November last, acquainting his Excellency, that he has it in command from his Majesty, to make grants of the unimproved lands in New-Hampshire government, and therefore desiring information, how far north of Albany this province extends, and how many miles to the eastward of Hudson's River to the northward of the Massachusetts line, that he may govern himself accordingly. Also an extract of his Majesty's letters-patent to Governor Wentworth, respecting the boundaries of New-Hampshire. And his Excellency having required the advice of the board thereupon, the council humbly advised his Excellency to acquaint Governor Wentworth, in answer to his said letter, that this province is bounded eastward by Connecticut River, the letters-patent from King Charles II. to the Duke of York expressly granting, 'all the lands from the west side of Connecticut River to the east side of Delaware Bay.'

N. B. The above resolve was communicated to Governor Wentworth, in a letter, dated April 9th, 1750, by G. Clinton, governor of New-York.

No. III.

No. III. Letter from Governor Wentworth.

SIR,

Portsmouth, April 25, 1750.

I HAVE the honour of your Excellency's letter of the 9th instant before me, in which you are pleased to give me the opinion of his Majesty's council of your government, that Connecticut River is the eastern boundary of New-York government, which would have been entirely satisfactory to me on the subject of my letter, had not the two charter-governments of Connecticut and the Massachusetts-Bay extended their bounds many miles to the westward of said river; and it being the opinion of his Majesty's council of this government, whose advice I am to take on these occasions, that New-Hampshire had an equal right to claim the same extent of western boundaries with those charter-governments, I had, in consequence of their advice, before your letter came to my hands, granted one township due north of the Massachusetts line, of the contents of six miles square, and by measurement twenty-four miles east of the city of Albany, presuming that this government was bounded by the same north and south line with Connecticut and the Massachusetts-Bay, before it met with his Majesty's other governments. Although I am prohibited by his Majesty's commission to interfere with his other governments, yet it is presumed that I should strictly adhere to the limits prescribed therein; and I assure you, that I am very far from desiring to make the least encroachment, or set on foot any dispute on these points. It will therefore give me great satisfaction, if at your leisure you can inform me, by what authority Connecticut and the Massachusetts governments claimed so far to the westward as they have settled, and in the mean time I shall desist from making any further grants on the western frontier of my government, that may have the least probability of interfering with your government. —I am, with great respect, Sir, your Excellency's most obedient humble servant,

B. WENTWORTH.

No. IV.

No. IV. *Letter from Governor Clinton.*

S I R,

June 6th, 1750.

I HAVE received your letter of the 25th April last, in answer to mine of the 9th of the same month, respecting the eastern boundary of this province, wherein you desire to be informed by what authority Connecticut and the Massachusetts governments claim so far to the westward as they have settled.

As to Connecticut, their claim is founded upon an agreement with this government in or about the year 1684, afterwards confirmed by King William, in consequence of which the lines between the two governments were run, and the boundaries marked in the year 1725, as appears by the commissioners and surveyors proceedings of record here. But it is presumed the Massachusetts government at first possessed themselves of those lands by intrusion, and through the negligence of this government have hitherto continued their possession, the lands not being private property.

From the information I have, there is reason to apprehend that the lands within the township you have lately granted, or part of them, have been granted here: And as my answer to your letter might probably have furnished you with objections against any grant which might interfere with this province, I am surprised you did not wait till it came to hand before you proceeded therein. If it is still in your power to recal the grant, your doing so will be but a piece of justice to this government, otherwise I shall think myself obliged to send a representation of the matter to be laid before his Majesty.—I am, &c.

No. V. *Letter from Governor Wentworth.*

S I R,

Portsmouth, June 22d, 1750,

AS soon as your letter of the 6th inst. came to my hands, I thought it proper to have the sense of his Majesty's council thereon, who were unanimously of the opinion, not to commence a dispute with your Excellency's government respecting the extent of the western boundary to New-Hampshire, until his Majesty's pleasure should be further known; accordingly the council have advised, that I shall,
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on the part of New-Hampshire, make a representation of the matter to his Majesty, relying that your Excellency will do the same on the part of New-York; and that whatever shall be determined thereon, this government will esteem it their duty to acquiesce in without any farther dispute, which I am hoping will be satisfactory on that point.

When I first wrote you on this subject, I thought I had given sufficient time to receive an answer to my letter, before I had fixed the day for passing the grant referred to in your letter; and as the persons concerned therein lived at a great distance, it was inconvenient for them to be delayed beyond the appointed time: I was not apprehensive any difficulty could arise by confining myself to the western boundaries of the two charter-governments; accordingly I passed the patent about ten days before your favour of the 6th of January 1749 came to hand. There is no possibility of vacating the grant, as you desire; but if it falls by his Majesty's determination in the government of New-York, it will be void of course. I shall be glad the method I have proposed may be agreeable to your province; and if submitting the affair to his Majesty meets with your approbation, I shall, upon receiving an answer, lose no time in transmitting what concerns this province to the proper offices.—I am, with the greatest respect, Sir, your Excellency's most obedient humble servant,

B. WENTWORTH.

No. VI. *Letter from Governor Clinton.*

SIR,

New-York, July 25, 1750.

I HAVE taken the sense of his Majesty's council on your Excellency's letter of the 22d ult. respecting the extent of the western boundary of your government, who think it highly expedient I should lay before his Majesty a representation of the matter on the part of this province; and as you propose to do the like on the part of New-Hampshire, they are of opinion it will be for the mutual advantage of both governments, if we exchange copies of each others representation on this head. If you approve of this, I will send you a copy of mine accordingly.—I am, &c.

(To be continued.)

Historical

Historical Memoirs of Colonel SETH WARNER.

AMONG the persons who have performed important services to the state of Vermont, Col. *Seth Warner* deserves to be remembered with respect. He was born at Woodbury, in the colony of Connecticut, about the year 1744, of honest and respectable parents. Without any other advantages for an education than what were to be found in the common schools of the town, he was early distinguished by the solidity and extent of his understanding. About the year 1763, his parents purchased a tract of land in Bennington, and soon after removed to that town with their family. In the uncultivated state of the country, in the fish, with which the rivers and ponds were furnished, and in the game, with which the woods abounded, young Warner found a variety of objects suited to his favourite inclinations and pursuits; and he soon became distinguished as a fortunate and indefatigable hunter.

His father, Capt. Benjamin Warner, had a strong inclination to medicinal inquiries and pursuits; and agreeably to the state of things in new settlements, had to look for many of his medicines in the natural virtues of the plants and roots, that were indigenous to the country. His son Seth frequently attended him in these botanical excursions, contracted something of his father's taste for the business, and acquired more information of the nature and properties of the indigenous plants and vegetables, than any other man in the country. By this kind of knowledge he became useful to the families in the new settlements, and administered relief in many cases, where no other medical assistance could at that time be procured. By such visits and practice, he became known to most of the families on the west side of the Green Mountains; and was generally esteemed by them a man highly useful, both on account of his information and humanity.

About the year 1763 a scene began to open, which gave a new turn to his active and enterprising spirit. The lands on which the settlements were made, had been granted by the governors of *New-Hampshire*. The government of *New-York* claimed jurisdiction to the eastward as far as *Connecticut*

ticut River; denied the authority of the governor of New-Hampshire to make any grants to the west of Connecticut River; and announced to the inhabitants, that they were within the territory of New-York, and had no legal title to the lands on which they had settled. The controversy became very serious between the two governments: And after some years spent in altercation, New-York procured a decision of George III. in their favour. This order was dated July 20, 1764, and declared, 'the western banks of the river Connecticut, from where it enters the province of Massachusetts-Bay, as far north as the 45th degree of northern latitude, to be the boundary line between the said two provinces of New-Hampshire and New-York.' No sooner was this decree procured, than the governor of New-York proceeded to make new grants of the lands, which the settlers had before fairly bought of the crown, and which had been chartered to them in the king's name and authority by the royal governor of New-Hampshire. All became a scene of disorder and danger. The new patentees under New-York brought actions of ejectment against the settlers: The decisions of the courts at Albany were always in favour of the New-York patentees; and nothing remained for the inhabitants but to buy their lands over again, or to give up the labours and earnings of their whole lives to the new claimers under titles from New-York.

In this scene of oppression and distress, the settlers discovered the firm and vigorous spirit of manhood. All that was left to them, was either to yield up their whole property to a set of unfeeling land-jobbers, or to defend themselves and property by force. They wisely and virtuously chose the latter; and by a kind of common consent, Ethan Allen and Seth Warner became their leaders. No man's abilities and talents could have been better suited to this business than Warner's. When the authority of New-York proceeded with an armed force to attempt to execute their laws, Warner met them with a body of Green Mountain Boys, properly armed, full of resolution, and so formidable in numbers and courage, that the governor of New-York was obliged to give up this method of proceeding. When the sheriff came to extend his executions, and eject the
settlers

settlers from their farms, Warner would not suffer him to proceed. Spies were employed to procure intelligence, and promote division among the people: When any of them were taken, Warner caused them to be tried by some of the most discreet of the people; and if declared guilty, to be tied to a tree and whipped. An officer came to take Warner by force; he considered it as an affair of open hostility; engaged, wounded, and disarmed the officer; but, with the honour and spirit of a soldier, spared the life of the enemy he had subdued. These services appeared in a very different light to the settlers, and to the government of New-York: The first considered him as an eminent patriot and hero; to the other he appeared as the first of villains and rebels. To put an end to all further exertions, and to bring him to an exemplary punishment, the government of New-York, on March 9th, 1774, passed an act of outlawry against him; and a proclamation was issued by *W. Tryon*, governor of New-York, offering a reward of fifty pounds to any person who should apprehend him. These proceedings of New-York were beheld by him with contempt; and they had no other effect upon the settlers, than to unite them more firmly in their opposition to that government, and in their attachment to their own patriotic leader thus wantonly proscribed.

In services of so dangerous and important a nature, Warner was engaged from the year 1765 to 1775. That year a scene of the highest magnitude and consequence opened upon the world: On the 19th of April, the American war was begun by the British troops at Lexington. Happily for the country it was commenced with such circumstances of insolence and cruelty, as left no room for the people of America to doubt what was the course which they ought to pursue. The time was come, in which total subjection, or the horrors of war, must take place. All America preferred the latter; and the people of the New-Hampshire grants immediately undertook to secure the British forts at Tyconderoga and Crown-point. Allen and Warner immediately engaged in the business. Allen took the command, and Warner raised a body of excellent troops in the vicinity of Bennington, and both marched against Tyconderoga.

deroga. They surprised and took that fortress on the morning of the 10th of May; and Warner was sent the same day with a detachment of the troops to secure Crown-point. He effected the business, and secured the garrison, with all the warlike stores, for the use of the continent.

The same year Warner received a commission from Congress to raise a regiment, to assist in the reduction of Canada. He engaged in the business with his usual spirit of activity; raised his regiment chiefly among his old acquaintance and friends, the Green Mountain Boys, and joined the army under the command of General Montgomery. The Hon. Samuel Safford of Bennington was his lieutenant-colonel. Their regiment conducted with great spirit, and acquired high applause, in the action at Longueuil, in which the troops designed for the relief of St. John's were totally defeated and dispersed, chiefly by the troops under the command of Colonel Warner. The campaign ended about the 20th of November, in the course of which Tyconderoga, Crown-point, Chamblee, St. John's, Montreal, and a fleet of eleven sail of vessels had been captured by the American arms. No man in this campaign had acted with more spirit and enterprise than Col. Warner. The weather was now become severe, and Warner's men were too miserably clothed to bear a winter's campaign in the severe climate of Canada. They were accordingly discharged by Montgomery with particular marks of his respect, and the most affectionate thanks for their meritorious services.

Warner returned with his men to the New-Hampshire grants, but his mind was more than ever engaged in the cause of his country. Montgomery, with a part of his army, pressed on to Quebec, and on December 31st was slain in an attempt to carry the city by storm. This event gave an alarm to all the northern part of the colonies; and it became necessary to raise a reinforcement to march to Quebec in the midst of winter. The difficulty of the business suited the genius and ardour of Warner's mind. He was at Woodbury in Connecticut when he heard the news of Montgomery's defeat and death; he instantly repaired to Bennington, raised a body of men, and marched in the midst of winter to join the American troops at Quebec. The

The campaign during the winter proved extremely distressing to the Americans: In want of comfortable clothing, barracks, and provision, most of them were taken by the small-pox, and several died. At the opening of the spring in May 1776, a large body of British troops arrived at Quebec to relieve the garrison. The American troops were forced to abandon the blockade with circumstances of great distress and confusion. Warner chose the most difficult part of the business, remaining always with the rear, picking up the lame and diseased, assisting and encouraging those who were the most unable to take care of themselves, and generally kept but a few miles in advance of the British, who were rapidly pursuing the retreating Americans from post to post. By steadily pursuing this conduct he brought off most of the invalids; and with this corps of the infirm and diseased he arrived at Tyconderoga, a few days after the body of the army had taken possession of that post.

Highly approving his extraordinary exertions, the American Congress, on July 5, 1776, the day after they had declared *Independence*, resolved to raise a regiment out of the troops which had served with reputation in Canada. Warner was appointed colonel, Safford lieutenant-colonel of this regiment; and most of the other officers were persons who had been distinguished by their opposition to the claims and proceedings of New York. By this appointment he was again placed in a situation perfectly agreeable to his inclination and genius; and in conformity to his orders he repaired to Tyconderoga, where he remained till the close of the campaign.

On January 16, 1777, the convention of the New-Hampshire grants declared the whole district to be a sovereign and independent state, to be known and distinguished ever after by the name of VERMONT. The committee of safety in New-York were then sitting; and on January 20th they announced the transaction to Congress, complaining in high terms of the conduct of Vermont, censuring it as a dangerous revolt and opposition to lawful authority; and at the same time remonstrating against the proceedings of Congress in appointing Warner to the command of a regiment independent of the legislature, and within the bounds of that state;

state; 'especially, said they, as this Col. Warner hath been
 ' constantly and invariably opposed to the legislature of this
 ' state, and hath been, on that very account, proclaimed
 ' an outlaw by the late government thereof. It is absolutely
 ' necessary to recal the commissions given to Col. Warner
 ' and the officers under him, as nothing else will do us jus-
 ' tice*.' No measures were taken by Congress at that time,
 either to interfere in the civil contests between the two states,
 or to remove the Colonel from his command. Anxious to
 effect this purpose, the convention of New-York wrote fur-
 ther on the subject on March 1st, and among other things
 declare, 'that there was not the least probability that Col.
 ' Warner could raise such a number of men as would be an
 ' object of public concern†.' Congress still declined to dis-
 miss so valuable an officer from their service. On June 23d
 Congress was obliged to take up the controversy between
 New-York and Vermont; but instead of proceeding to dis-
 band the Colonel's regiment, on June 30th they resolved,
 ' that the reason which induced Congress to form that
 ' corps, was, that many officers of different states who had
 ' served in Canada, and alledged that they could soon raise
 ' a regiment, but were then unprovided for, might be re-
 ' instated in the service of the United States‡'. Nothing
 can give us a more just idea of the sentiments which the
 American Congress entertained of the patriotic and military
 virtues of the Colonel, than their refusing to give him up
 to the repeated solicitations and demands of so respectable
 and powerful a state as that of New-York.

The American army stationed at Tyconderoga were for-
 ced to abandon that fortress on July 6, 1777, in a very pre-
 cipitate and irregular manner. The Colonel with his regiment
 retreated along the western part of Vermont, through the
 towns of Orwell, Sudbury, and Hubbardton. At the last
 of these towns, the advanced corps of the British army over-
 took the rear of the American troops on the morning of the
 7th of July. The American army, all but part of three
 regiments, were gone forward; these were part of Hale's,
 Francis's, and Warner's regiments. The enemy attacked

* *A. Tappan Brock's letter to Congress, Jan. 20, 1777.*

† *Letter of March 1.* ‡ *Journals of Congress, June 30, 1777.*

them

them with superior numbers, and the highest prospect of success. Francis and Warner opposed them with great spirit and vigour; and no officers or troops could have discovered more courage and firmness than they displayed through the whole action. Large reinforcements of the enemy arriving, it became impossible to make any effectual opposition. Francis fell in a most honourable discharge of his duty. Hale surrendered with his regiment. Surrounded on every side by the enemy, but calm and undaunted, Col. Warner fought his way through all opposition, brought off the troops that refused to capitulate with Hale, checked the enemy in their pursuit, and, contrary to all expectation, arrived safe with his troops at Manchester. To the northward of that town the whole country was deserted: The Colonel determined to make a stand at that place; encouraged by his example and firmness, a body of the militia soon joined him; and he was once more in a situation to protect the inhabitants, harass the enemy, and break up the advanced parties.

On the 16th of August, the vicinity of Bennington became the seat of a memorable battle. Col. Baum had been dispatched by Gen. Burgoyne, to attack the American troops and destroy their magazines at Bennington. Gen. Starks, who commanded at that place, had intelligence of the approach of the enemy; and sent orders on the morning of the 16th to Col. Warner at Manchester to march immediately to his assistance. In the mean time Starks, with the troops which were assembled at Bennington, had attacked the enemy under Col. Baum, and, after a severe action, had captured the whole body. Just as the action was finished, intelligence was received that a large reinforcement of the enemy had arrived. Fatigued and exhausted by so long and severe an action, Starks was doubtful whether it was possible for his troops to enter immediately upon another battle with a fresh body of the enemy. At that critical moment Warner arrived with his troops from Manchester. Mortified that he had not been in the action, and determined to have some part in the glory of the day, he urged Starks immediately to commence another action. Starks consented; and the Colonel instantly led on his men to battle. The
Americans

Americans rallied from every part of the field, and the second action became as fierce and decisive as the first. The enemy gave way in every direction; great numbers of them were slain, and the rest saved themselves altogether by the darkness of the night. Starks ascribed the last victory very much to Colonels Warner and Herrick; and spoke in the highest terms of their superior information and activity, as that to which he principally owed his success. The success at Bennington gave a decisive turn to the affairs of that campaign. Starks, Warner, and the other officers, with their troops, joined the army under Gen. Gates: Victory everywhere followed the attempts of the northern army; and the campaign terminated in the surrender of Burgoyne and his whole army, at Saratoga, on October 17, 1777.

The contest in the northern department being in a great measure decided by the capture of Burgoyne, Warner had no further opportunity to discover his prowess in defence of his beloved state; but served occasionally at different places on Hudson's River, as the circumstances of the war required, and always with reputation. Despairing of success in the northern parts, the enemy carried the war into the southern states; and neither New-York or Vermont any longer remained the places of distinguished enterprise or action. But such had been the fatigues and exertions of the Colonel, that when he returned to his family at Bennington, his constitution, naturally firm and vigorous, appeared to be worn down; and nature declined under a complication of disorders, occasioned by the excessive labours and sufferings he had passed through.

Most of those men who have been engaged with uncommon ardour in the cause of their country, have been so swallowed up with the patriotic passion, as to neglect that attention to their private interest which other men pursue as the ruling passion. Thus it proved with Col. Warner: Intent at first upon saving a state, and afterwards upon saving a country, his mind was so entirely engaged in these pursuits, that he had not made that provision for his family, which to most of the politicians and land-jobbers was the ultimate end of all their measures and exertions. With a view the better to support his family he removed to Woodbury;

bury; where, in the year 1785, he ended an active and useful life in high estimation among his friends and countrymen.

His family had derived little or no estate from his services. After his death they applied to the General Assembly of Vermont for a grant of land. The Assembly, with a spirit of justice and generosity, remembered the services of Col. Warner, took up the petition, and granted a valuable tract of land to his widow and family: A measure highly honourable to the memory of Col. Warner, and of that Assembly.

Original.

*Famam extendere factis,
Hoc virtutis opus.*

The Editor is extremely desirous to collect memoirs of the lives and transactions of those men, who have performed eminent services for the people of this state. He will be much obliged to the friends of the late General *Ethan Allen*, *Jonathan Arnold*, or any other of the deceased patriots, to favour him with such historical anecdotes or documents as may be in their power. There cannot be a more benevolent employment, than to assist in preserving from oblivion the lives of those men, who have been of eminent service to their country.



POLITICAL PAPERS.

Sundry ESTIMATES and STATEMENTS relative to Appropriations for the service of the year 1795.

[Published by order of the House of Representatives.]

TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

SIR,

Nov. 25th, 1794.

I HAVE the honour to present, on behalf of the Secretary of the Treasury, a report and estimates of the appropriations which appear to be necessary for the service of the year 1795, and for other purposes; also statements in relation to certain expenditures of sums heretofore appropriated.

I have the honour to be, &c. OLIVER WOLCOTT, jun.

The honourable the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

The undersigned, on behalf of the Secretary of the Treasury, respectfully REPORTS to the House of Representatives,

THAT for the service of the year 1795, and for making provision for deficiencies in former grants, the following appropriations, as detailed in the estimates herewith transmitted, appear to be necessary.

F

For

For the civil list, or the support of government, including the incidental and contingent expences of the several departments and officers, the sum of	435,249 53
For the support of light houses, beacons, buoys, and public piers, and for satisfying certain miscellaneous claims, the sum of	32,004 13
For the department of war, comprising the following general objects of expenditure :	
The support of the army, including expences in the hospital, ordnance, quarter-master and Indian departments, the defensive protection of the frontiers, contingencies, and to complete certain fortifications, the sum of	1,511,975 29
For the pay, support, and expences of the militia ordered into service in the year 1794, the sum of	1,122,569 1
For the naval department, the sum of	220,754 40
For the payment of military pensions, the sum of	85,357 4
Total estimate for the War Department	2,940,655 74
Amounting together to	Dols. 3,407,909 40

The funds out of which appropriations may be made for the foregoing purposes, are—1st. The sum of six hundred thousand dollars of the proceeds of duties on imports and tonnage, which will accrue in the year 1795, which is annually reserved for the support of government, by the act entitled, “An act making provision for the debt of the United States;” and, 2d. The surplus of revenue and income which will accrue to the end of the year 1795, after satisfying the objects for which appropriations have been heretofore made.

It may be expected, that the revenues of the United States will prove adequate to the expenditure contemplated; but, owing to the credits allowed by law, and the urgent nature of certain demands which have arisen during the present year, it appears to be necessary, that the appropriations should be accompanied with an authority to borrow the amount.

The existing appropriation for paying interest on such part of the domestic debt as may remain unsubscribed to the loan, is limited to the present year; a similar provision for the year 1795, is presumed to be requisite.

The third instalment of the loan of two millions, obtained of the bank of the United States, amounting to two hundred thousand dollars, will fall due on the last day of December ensuing. This object has not been comprised in the estimate—it being supposed, that Congress will judge it expedient to provide for the payment thereof out of the foreign fund heretofore transferred to the United States.

The statements marked A, B, and C, herewith transmitted, shew the expenditure of certain sums granted by acts of Congress, passed the 8th of

of May 1792, the 28th of February 1793, and the 14th of March 1794, towards discharging such demands on the United States, not otherwise provided for, as should be ascertained and admitted at the treasury, and of a nature according to the usages thereof, to require payment in specie.

All which is humbly submitted, on behalf of the Secretary of the Treasury.

OLIVER WOLCOTT.

Treasury Department, Nov. 6th, 1794.

An Estimate for an appropriation of monies by the United States, for the services of the year 1795, under the following arrangement of expenditure.

For the Civil Department—Military Department—Naval Department—Payment of Military Pensions—Support of Light-Houses, Beacons, Buoys, and Public Piers—and, for to satisfy Miscellaneous Claims.

CIVIL DEPARTMENT.

	Dols.	Cts.
Compensation to the President of the United States	25,000	
To the Vice-President	5,000	
	<hr/>	
Total	30,000	

THE LEGISLATURE.

For compensations to the Senators, and members of the House of Representatives, their officers and clerks, and for the contingent expences of both Houses, estimating the attendance of the whole number for six months

Speaker of the House of Representatives, at 12 dols. per day	2,190
One hundred and thirty-four members, at 6 dols. pr. day	146,730
Travelling expences, to and from the seat of government	25,000
Secretary of the Senate, one year's salary	1500
Additional allowances estimated for 6 months, at 2 dols. per day	365
Principal clerk to the Secretary of the Senate for 365 days, at 3 dols. per day	1095
Two engrossing clerks to do. at 2 dols. per day each, for 365 days	1460
Chaplain of the Senate, estimated at 6 months, 500 dols. per annum	250
Door keeper to the Senate, one year's salary	500
Assistant door keeper, do.	450
Clerk to the House of Representatives, 1 year's salary :	1500
Additional allowances, estimated for 6 months, at 2 dols. per day	365
Principal clerk in the office of the clerk of the House of Representatives, for 365 days, at 3 dols. per day	1095

Two engrossing clerks, at 2 dols. per day each, for 365 days	1460
Chaplain of the House of Representatives, estimated at 6 months, at 500 dols. per ann	250
Serjeant at arms, for the same time, at 4 dols. per day	730
Door keeper to the House of Representatives, 1 year's salary	500
Assistant door keeper, do	450
Expences of fire wood, stationary, printing work, and all other contingent expences of the two Houses of Congress	
For the Senate, estimated at	3,000
House of Representatives, do.	6,500
Total	195 390

THE JUDICIARY.

Compensation to the Chief Justice	4,000
Do. to 5 associate Judges, at 3,500 dollars each	17,500
Do. to the district Judge of Maine	1,000
Do. — of N. Hampshire	1,000
Do. — of Vermont	800
Do. — of Massachusetts	12,000
Do. — of Rhode Island	800
Do. — of Connecticut	1,000
Do. — of New York	1,500
Do. — of New Jersey	1,000
Do. — of Pennsylvania	1,600
Do. — of Delaware	800
Do. — of Maryland	1,500
Do. — of Virginia	1,300
Do. — of Kentucky	1,000
Do. — of N. Carolina	1,500
Do. — of S. Carolina	1,800
Do. — of Georgia	1,500
Do. to the Attorney General	1,900
Expences of clerks of courts, jurors, witnesses, and other charges of holding judicial courts of the United States, in addition to the fund arising from fines, forfeitures, and penalties, which has hitherto proved insufficient	12,000
For the expences towards the safe keeping and prosecution of persons committed for offences against the United States	4,000
Total	59,200

TREA.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

Compensation of the Secretary of the Treasury . . .	3,500
Two principal clerks, at 800 dols. each	1,600
Five clerks at 500 dols. each	2,500
Messenger and office keeper	250
Compensation to the Comptroller of the Treasury . .	2,650
Principal clerk	800
Thirteen clerks at 500 dols. each	6,500
Messenger and office keeper	250
Compensation to the Auditor of the Treasury . . .	2,400
Principal clerk	800
Sixteen clerks at 500 dols. each	8,000
Messenger and office keeper	250
Compensation to the Treasurer of the United States .	2,400
Principal clerk	600
Two clerks at 500 dollars each	1,000
Messenger and office keeper	100
Contingent expences for office rent, fuel, stationary, printing, bills of exchange, additional clerk-hire in assisting to copy accounts current, and to make up deficiency in last year's appropriation	600
Compensation of the Commissioner of the Revenue . .	2,400
One principal and six other clerks on the business of the revenue, military, naval, and Indian contract, light-houses, and general returns and statements	3,500
Messenger and office keeper	250
Compensation to the Register of the Treasury . . .	2,000
To twenty-six clerks, on the several branches of the public records, at 500 dols. each, viz.	
One principal and two assistant clerks on the books in relation to the impost, tonnage, and revenue arising from duties on distilled spirits and other articles . .	1,500
One principal and one assistant clerk on the books of the receipts and expenditures of public monies	1,000
One principal and two assistant clerks on the books in relation to the loans, under the act making provision for the public debt, which exhibit the accounts of the Treasury and the loan offices in the several states, with the general accounts of interest arising thereon . . .	1,500
One clerk on the unclaimed dividends, at the several loan offices which are payable at the treasury	500
One principal and eight assistant clerks on the six several sets of books of funded stock, at the treasury, for the issuing of certificates of transfer, and forming the quarter yearly dividends	4,500
Three clerks on the records and duties assigned by the	

acts for registering, enrolling, and lincensing ships or vessels	1,500
Four clerks on the books of the late government, com- prehending the registered debt and the payment of its interest	2,000
One transcribing clerk	500
Two office keepers, for the several offices of record, who are also employed as messengers, at 250 dols. each	500
Expence of stationary, printing, and all other contingent expences of the several offices of the treasury (the Treasurer excepted)	
Secretary of the Treasury	500
Comptroller of the Treasury	800
Auditor of the Treasury	300
Commissioner of the Revenue	400
Register of the Treasury, including books for the public stock, printing works, and books for arrangement of the marine papers	2,400
Rent of the treasury	1,000
Do. of a house for part of the register's office	240
Do. of a house for the Commissioner of the Revenue, and for part of the office of the Comptroller, and part of the office of the Auditor	266 63
Rent of a house for the Auditor, and a small store for papers	440
Wood for the department, (Treasurer's excepted) and other contingencies	1,500
And for the expence incident to the stating and printing the public accounts for 1795	800

Total 64,699 58

Compensation for the several Loan Officers, viz.

For the state of New-Hampshire	—	—	650
of Massachusetts	—	—	1,500
of Rhode-Island	—	—	600
of Connecticut	—	—	1,000
of New-York	—	—	1,500
of New-Jersey	—	—	700
of Pennsylvania	—	—	1,500
of Delaware	—	—	600
of Maryland	—	—	1,000
of Virginia	—	—	1,500
of North-Carolina	—	—	1,000
of South-Carolina	—	—	1,000
of Georgia	—	—	700

Total 13,250

DE.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

Compensation to the Secretary of State	3,500
To the chief clerk	800
To one clerk	700
To five clerks at 500 dols. each	2,500
To office keeper and messenger	250
<i>Incidental and contingent expences</i>	
Stationary of all kinds	240
Fire wood	200
Office rent	533 33
Newspapers from the different states, about 20, at 4 dols. each	80
Gazettes from, and gazettes sent to American ministers abroad	80
Laws of the second session of the third Congress, to be published in five newspapers, at about 100 dols. each	500
For printing an edition of the same, to be distributed according to law	800
For printing sea-letters, safe conducts, and all other printing for the department	200
For binding	50
For an index to the laws of the third Congress	200
For translating foreign languages	250
For an additional clerk, from the 3d day of June, to the 31st day of December 1794, inclusive	288 46
For extra clerk hire in bringing up the records, and for which no appropriation has hitherto been made	250
For extra clerk hire during the year 1795	250
For an assistant to the messenger	50
Total	11,721 79

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Compensation to the Director	2,000
To the Treasurer	1,200
To the Assayer	1,500
To the chief Coiner	1,500
To the Engraver	1,200
To four clerks at 500 dols. each	2,000

Wages of labourers.

The Director estimates 100 dollars per week for to pay the labourers employed in all the different branches of refinery, melting, and coining, which includes all the workmen employed in the mint, except the mechanics 5,200

Incident and contingent expences and repairs.

To pay mechanics employed in making and repairing machinery, &c, for the mint, about 50 dols. per week 2,600

For a new coining press, to weigh about 600 weight . . .	200
For ironmongery	450
For lead, coals, wood, and a variety of other articles of consumption necessary for the establishment . . .	3,200
For stationary, office-furniture, &c. for the different offices of the mint	250
For the purchase of one, and for the keeping of 4 horses . . .	500
For the purchase of a house and lot	1,200
For the purchase of lumber, bricks, and other materials for building to be erected, and other improvements to be made, including carpenter and mason work, cartage and labourers	700
For six hundred gallons of rum at 100 cents	600
For two watchmen	300
Total	24,600

(To be continued)

THE HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

THE most capital event of modern times, is, the *American Revolution*. It has not only served to establish a powerful and flourishing empire in AMERICA, but it has produced an astonishing revolution in FRANCE, the most potent nation of Europe; and is now disseminating the American principles among all the rest. It is of the highest importance that the citizens of America, in every part of the federal union, should be acquainted with the causes and events that led to the establishment of their empire and freedom; and that the relation should be transmitted down to posterity. This is what the Editor proposes to attempt under the following article for the citizens of this state. The narration will include most of the events that took place in our contest with Great-Britain; and will probably run through all the numbers of the present year. If our readers will carefully preserve each number, they will find, at the end of the volume, a concise, but complete history of the rise, progress, and termination of the American revolution and war.

OF the rise and establishment of the American Republic, which has given a new face to the western world, a succinct and

and impartial narrative shall in this article be attempted; in which, however, we cannot hope entirely to avoid errors, as they are perhaps unavoidable. The accounts from which the historian must derive his information, are not yet cleared from the mistakes of prejudice and the fabrications of party; when they differ, their comparative authenticity is with difficulty ascertained; and they want, above all, that softening which they can receive from time alone.

It has hitherto been remarked, that the beginning of every political establishment is contemptible. Some few banditti, taking refuge among the marshes on the banks of the Tiber, laid the foundation of the Roman empire: and it may, perhaps, be said, that the turbulence of some North-Americans, and the blunders of some British statesmen, gave birth to this new republic, which, at a future period, bids fair to surpass even the splendor of Rome.

The state of the British colonies at the conclusion of the war in 1763, was such as attracted the attention of all the politicians in Europe. Their flourishing condition at that period was remarkable and striking: their trade had prospered in the midst of all the difficulties and distresses of a war in which they were so nearly and so immediately concerned. Their population continued on the increase, notwithstanding the ravages and depredations that had been so fiercely carried on by the French, and the native Indians in their alliance. They abounded with spirited and active individuals of all denominations. They were flushed with the uncommon prosperity that had attended them in their commercial affairs and military transactions. Hence they were ready for all kind of undertakings, and saw no limits to their hopes and expectations.

As they entertained the highest opinion of their value and importance, and of the immense benefit that Britain derived from its connection with them, their notions were adequately high in their own favour. They deemed themselves, not without reason, entitled to every kindness and indulgence which the mother-country could bestow.

Although their pretensions did not amount to a perfect equality of advantages and privileges in matters of commerce, yet in those of government they thought themselves

fully competent to the task of conducting their domestic concerns, with little or no interference from abroad. Tho' willing to admit the supremacy of Great-Britain, they viewed it with a suspicious eye, and with a marked desire to restrain it within its strict constitutional boundaries.

Their improvements in all the necessary and useful arts did honour to their industry and ingenuity. Though they did not live in the luxury of Europe, they had all the solid and substantial enjoyments of life, and were not unacquainted with many of its elegancies and refinements.

A circumstance much to their praise, is, that, notwithstanding their peculiar addiction to those occupations of which lucre is the sole object, they were duly attentive to cultivate the field of learning; and they have, ever since their foundation, been particularly careful to provide for the education of the rising progeny.

Their vast augmentation of internal trade and external commerce, was not merely owing to their position and facility of communication with other parts; it arose also from their natural turn and temper, full of schemes and projects; ever aiming at new discoveries, and continually employed in the search of means of improving their condition.

Their condition carried them into every quarter from whence profit could be derived. There was scarcely any port of the American hemisphere to which they had not extended their navigation. They were continually exploring new sources of trade, and were found in every spot where business could be transacted.

To this extensive and incessant application to commerce, they added an equal vigilance in the administration of their affairs at home. Whatever could conduce to the amelioration of the soil they possessed, to the progress of agriculture, or to the improvement of their domestic circumstances, was attended to with so much labour and care, that it may be strictly said, that nature had given them nothing of which they did not make the most.

In the midst of this solicitude and toil in matters of business, the affairs of government were conducted with steadiness, prudence, and lenity, seldom experienced, and never exceeded, in the best regulated countries of Europe.

Such

Such was the situation of the British colonies in general throughout North-America, and of the New-England provinces in particular, when the pacification above mentioned opened one of the most remarkable scenes that ever commanded the attention of the world.

In treating of the American revolution, it has become a fashion with the English writers to ascribe that event to the successful intrigues of the French government. Instead of contemplating it with the characteristic philosophy of their country, as the result of a contest between the desire of power, and the abhorrence of oppression, they have sought the origin of the evil in any source rather than their own misconduct; and have endeavoured, at once, to hush the reproaches of their political conscience, and to gratify the cravings of their national animosity, in wild conjectures of a scheme formed by their neighbours to divide the British empire, and in declamatory invectives against the Gallic faith and honour. Thus, it has been repeatedly asserted, that the French having long viewed, with equal envy and apprehension, the flourishing state of the colonies which Britain had founded in America, began immediately after the peace of Paris to carry into execution their project for separating those colonies from the mother-country. Secret emissaries, it is said, were employed in spreading dissatisfaction among the colonists; and the effects produced by these machinating spirits are described to have been a rapid diminution of that peculiar warmth of attachment, which the inhabitants of North-America had hitherto demonstrated for the mother-country; the excitement of a jealousy which led them to view her rather in the light of a sovereign than of a parent; and the introduction of a hostile policy, which taught them to examine, with a scrupulous nicety, the nature of those ties that rendered them parts of her empire. That such emissaries were ever employed, is a fact unsupported by any document which the purity of historical truth can admit; and, although the effects here described have certainly appeared, it must be remembered, that their appearance followed, but did not precede the attempts of Britain upon the rights and liberties of America. By mere artifice and address to have alienated the affections of the colonists

colonists from their mother-country, at the close of a war in which their interests and feelings had been interwoven with more than usual strength and energy, was a task of infinite difficulty, not surely to be accomplished in the short period between the declaration of peace in 1761, and the promulgation of the first obnoxious acts of the British parliament in 1764. But, if we trace these effects to another cause, to a love of liberty and a quick sense of injury, their appearance will be natural and just; consistent with the American character, and corresponding with the conduct which was displayed in all the vicissitudes that attended the revolt.

In March 1764 a bill was passed, by which heavy duties were laid on goods imported by the colonists from such West-India islands as did not belong to Great-Britain; at the same time that these duties were to be paid into the exchequer in specie: and in the same session another bill was framed to restrain the currency of paper-money in the colonies themselves. Not only the principle of taxation, but the mode of collection was considered as an unconstitutional and oppressive innovation; for the penalties incurred by an infraction of the acts of parliament, might be recovered in the courts of admiralty, before a single judge (whose salary was the fruit of the forfeitures he decreed) without trial by jury, or any of the other benefits of common law jurisprudence. These acts coming so close to each other, threw the whole continent into the utmost ferment. Vehement remonstrances were made to the ministry, and every argument made use of that reason or ingenuity could suggest, but to no purpose. Their reasoning, however, convinced a great number of people in Britain; and thus the American cause came to be considered as the cause of liberty.

The Americans, finding all argumentation vain, at last united in an agreement to import no more of the manufactures of Great-Britain, but to encourage to the utmost of their power every thing of that kind among themselves. Thus the British manufacturers also became a party against the ministry, and did not fail to express their resentment in the strongest terms; but the ministry were not to be so easily daunted, and therefore proceeded to the last step of
their

their intended plan, which was to lay on stamp-duties throughout the continent. Previous to this, indeed, several regulations were passed in favour of the commerce of the colonies; but they had now imbibed such unfavourable sentiments of the British ministry, that they paid very little regard to any thing pretended to be done in their favour; or if these acts made any favourable impression, it was quickly obliterated by the news of the stamp-act. The reason given for this act, so exceedingly obnoxious, was, that a sum might be raised sufficient for the defence of the colonies against a foreign enemy; but this pretence was so far from giving any satisfaction to the Americans, that it excited their indignation to the utmost degree. They not only asserted that they were abundantly able to defend themselves against any foreign enemy, but denied that the British parliament had any right to tax them at all.

(To be continued.)

SELECT POETRY.

The Incurable—By Dr. Ladd.

DOCTOR, I'd have you know I'm come,
As far as 'tis from here to home,
To tell you my condition.
I've got the itch, I've got the gout:
My shins are broke: I've hurt my foot.
I want a good physician.
The doctors say, my liver's bad:
My pulse are quick: my heart is sad:
My stomach's out of order:
I've got a hobb'ling in my gait:
My words I cannot speak them strait:
O tell me my disorder.
My hands are weak: my sight is dim:
And now and then my head will swim:
My neighbours won't insure me.
But the worst plague of all my life,
I've lately catch'd a scolding wife:
O doctor can you cure me?

The

The Happy Man.

CONTENT with a little, I wish for no more,
 I mean with an anxious desire;
 But if Fortune should offer to add to my store,
 I would not pass scornfully by her.
 With cheerfulness what I possess, I receive,
 And my heart glows with thanks to kind Heav'n;
 Nor do I, with envy corroded, e'er grieve,
 Because more to my neighbour is giv'n.
 Contented I rise, and contented to rest,
 When my eyes want repose, I retreat;
 Ev'ry morning I wake with tranquility blest,
 And each ev'ning my slumbers are sweet.
 For high-season'd ragouts, and rich sauces, I ne'er
 Like a worn-out old epicure, pine;
 Plain dishes alone, plainly drest, I can bear
 For my food, and plain port is my wine.
 The court of gay Comus I carefully shun,
 No gusto have I for their glee;
 For the scenes which afford a *choice spirit* high fun,
 Are, I own, far too lively for me.
 The bucks and the bloods, who turn day into night,
 Enjoy nothing but discord and strife;
 In a round-house adventure they dearly delight,
 For 'that is d——d drole Jack! that's life.'
 Of time's tardy progress I never complain,
 Nor wish he would fly with more speed;
 With my thoughts I can ever myself entertain,
 And no cards for amusement e'er need.—
 By turns to my book and my pen I devote
 The moments no bus'ness employs;
 And from what I have read, and from what I have wrote,
 Receive peaceful and permanent joys.

*Vanity of Names.*

SAY, where those names which set the world on fire?
 Where does the pride of Greece and Rome retire?
 Cæsar's dread name now marks the butcher's dog,
 Cato sows wood, and Scipio drives a hog:
 Seek you for Pompey? search the tanner's yard,
 You'll meet with Nero in your garden's guard.

A New-Year's Wish.

ACCEPT, my dear Chloe, from Martha, thy friend,
 Each wish that can friendship endear:
 May the bounty of heaven propitiously send
 Long health—and a happy new-year.—
 May ev'ry enjoyment which prudence allows,
 Thy life long continue to bless;
 May love and esteem weave a wreath for thy brow,
 And beauty be crown'd with success.

*The Indian Convert.*

WHEN our fathers were driven by British oppression,
 Of their dear native country to quit the possession,
 And fled to this land to enjoy their opinions,
 They were welcom'd by Indians to Indian dominions.

Now zealous to propagate Christian religion,
 In such an idolatrous, ignorant region,
 They courted the natives with generous liquor,
 Expecting that they'd become Christians the quicker.

In a neighbouring wigwam resided two brothers,
 The heathen was one's faith, but Christian the other's,
 To the English his visits were frequent and pleasant,
 They gave him good liquor, and many a present.

The heathen begrudg'd the good luck of his brother,
 And resolved to share with him some way or other.
 "How is it," quoth he, "the white folks are so friendly,
 "To make you such presents, and treat you so kindly?"

He answer'd, "I give them a piece out of scripture,
 "And now and then quote them a piece of a chapter;
 "This pleases them well, and good cyder they give,
 "If you do the same, the same you'll receive."

Quoth he to himself, "So I will if I'm able,"
 Then getting some names by rote from the bible,
 He went and sat himself down on the floor,
 And said "Adam, Eve, Cain, the Devil, Job, Koar."

He was ask'd, with surprise, what he meant by all this?
 Quoth he, "I mean cyder, why could you not guess?"

Meteorological Observations for January, 1795.

D.	Thermometer.			Winds.	Weather.
	7 A. M.	1 P. M.	9 P. M.		
1	12	28	10	W.	Fair.
2	-10	20	13	W.	Do.
3	-5	26	26	W.	Fair day. Cloudy evening.
4	26	33	32	SW.	Snow storm all day.
5	22	26	30	N.	Cloudy dull weather. Fair evening.
6	-7	30	30	W. to SW.	Fair day. Cloudy evening.
7	31	40	30	SE.	Snow storm A. M. Cloudy P. M.
8	7	18	29	W.	Fair day.
9	22	30	31	SW.	Cloudy dull weather.
10	30	38	18	W. to NW.	Fair and pleasant.
11	9	22	15	NW.	Cloudy weather.
12	-5	20	10	NW.	Cloudy, with fleeting snow.
13	-7	20	0	NW.	Do.
14	-12	18	-2	NW.	Do.
15	-9	18	-3	N.	Do.
16	-2	5	-3	NW.	Fair day.
17	-5	20	10	W.	Cloudy weather.
18	2	9	4	NW.	Fair day.
19	3	7	4	NW.	Do.
20	2	23	16	W.	Do.
21	18	30	25	NW.	Cloudy.
22	26	33	25	W.	Fair weather.
23	23	36	20	W.	Cloudy.
24	18	36	20	W.	Do.
25	2	36	10	NW.	Fair pleasant day.
26	3	26	8	NW.	Do.
27	3	40	32	NW.	Do.
28	23	43	20	W.	Do.
29	10	46	26	SE.	Cloudy. Storm of rain at night.
30	36	38	28	SE.	Cloudy.
31	16	22	16	NW.	Fair weather.

C O N T E N T S.

	Page		Page
The improvement which the man of Europe has received in America,	5	Letter from Gov. Wentworth,	30
The singular resolution and fortitude of Anna Askew,	14	Letter from Gov. Clinton, . .	31
The horrid effects of ignorance, fear, and superstition,	16	Letter from Gov. Wentworth,	31
The sublime geometry of the bees,	18	Letter from Gov. Clinton, . .	32
The pitiable case of an old bachelor,	21	Historical memoirs of Col. Seth Warner,	33
Medical papers—The rise of physic, a caveat against quackery,	22	Political papers—fundry estimates and statements relative to appropriations for the service of the year 1795,	41
A case of the hydrophobia, . . .	26	The history of the American revolution,	48
Collection of original historical papers—Letter from the governor of New Hampshire to the governor of New York,	28	Poetry—The incurable, . . .	53
Minutes of the council of New-York,	29	The happy man,	54
		The vanity of names,	54
		A new-year's wish,	55
		The Indian convert,	55
		Meteorological observations for January 1795,	56